GRANT NUMBER DAMD17-98-1-8057

TITLE: Evaluation of Cycloogenase-2 as a Novel Target for Breast Cancer Prevention

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REPORT DATE: July 1999

TYPE OF REPORT: Annual

PREPARED FOR: Commanding General

U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command

Fort Detrick, Maryland 21702-5012

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT: Approved for Public Release;

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20010515 075

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188

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6. AUTHOR(S) Andrew J. Dannenberg, M.D.			
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9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AG U.S. Army Medical Research and Fort Detrick, Maryland 21702-5	l Materiel Command	1,-,-	PONSORING / MONITORING GENCY REPORT NUMBER
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			
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17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION 1 OF REPORT Unclassified	8. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE Unclassified	19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT Unclassified	DN 20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT Unlimited

FOREWORD

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Introduction

Cyclooxygenase (Cox) catalyzes both the synthesis of prostaglandins (PGs) and the intracellular production of mutagens from procarcinogens. The inducible form of cyclooxygenase, Cox-2, is expressed in a wide variety of human cancers and recent evidence suggests that it plays a critical role in tumorigenesis, particularly in colorectal cancer. Both epidemiological and experimental data indicate that nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), which inhibit Cox activity and PG production, protect against colon cancer. In addition, experiments utilizing <a>Cox-2 knockout mice have shown that loss of Cox-2 leads to a marked reduction in polyp formation in a mouse model of familial adenomatous polyposis coli. These results demonstrate the importance of Cox-2 in intestinal tumorigenesis. However, a role for Cox-2 in breast cancer has not been established. Our research is designed to test whether Cox-2 is important in the pathogenesis of mammary cancer, using Wnt-1 as a model mammary oncogene. Transgenic mice which express Wnt-1 from a mammary specific promoter are predisposed to develop mammary hyperplasia and subsequent carcinomas, and represent a well characterized model of mammary tumorigenesis. Female Wnt-1 transgenic mice with the following Cox-2 genotypes; (+/+), (+/-) and (-/-), are being generated by crossing Cox-2 (+/-) females with Wnt-1 transgenic Cox-2 (+/-) males. As the target mice are generated they will be monitored for development of mammary hyperplasias and adenocarcinomas, to determine whether reduced Cox-2 expression protects against formation of tumors or preneoplastic lesions. Concurrently, the molecular mechanism by which Wnt-1 upregulates Cox-2 is being elucidated in mammary cell culture models. If our research reveals that knocking out the <a>Cox-2 gene protects against mammary tumorigenesis, it will suggest a potential use for selective Cox-2 inhibitors as chemopreventive agents in the treatment of breast cancer.

Body

Progress during the first year of the grant will be described with specific reference to the individual tasks specified in the Statement of Work.

Task 1. Generate breeding stocks of $\underline{\text{Wnt-1}}$ transgenic and $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ knockout mice for subsequent crosses.

This is completed. All of these animals have been generated and genotyped by PCR analysis of tail tip DNA. The animals have either been sacrificed or used in subsequent crosses as appropriate. Interestingly, during breeding we observed greater viability of Cox-2 null animals than had previously been observed. Cox-2 null animals either exhibited perinatal mortality or survived for extended periods of time, many still being alive at 8 or 9 months of age. This will have a positive impact on our studies. We had planned to evaluate mammary hyperplasia in Wnt-1 transgenic females of all three Cox-2 genotypes (i.e. wildtype, heterozygote and null), but expected that due to early

mortality of the Cox-2 knockout animals, we would only be able to compare tumor incidence in Cox-2 wildtype and heterozygote animals. However, we now expect that the knockout animals should have sufficient lifespan for us to determine the effect of Cox-2 absence on tumor latency.

Task 2. Cross Wnt-1 TG males x Cox-2 (+/-) females to generate 10-12 Wnt-1 TG, Cox-2 (+/-) male F1 mice for further breeding, and to generate Wnt-1 TG female mice for analysis of Cox-2 expression in mammary glands.

This is completed. 10 breeding pairs of <u>Wnt-1</u> transgenic males and <u>Cox-2</u> (+/-) females were established, and about 100 offspring genotyped to obtain the required mice for the subsequent cross. All inappropriate genotypes have been sacrificed, and breeding pairs established for task 4.

Task 3. Analyze $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ expression in mammary tissue from 5 $\underline{\text{Wnt-1}}$ TG females and 5 wild-type female litter mates.

Initial analysis by Western blotting has revealed increased expression of Cox-2 in mammary tissue from <u>Wnt-1</u> transgenic mice compared with wildtype controls. More extensive analyses of Cox-2 expression by Western blotting, Northern blotting and immunohistochemistry will be performed on mice generated during the final cross (Task 4). These mice will have closest strain backgrounds to the cohort of animals retained to analyze tumor incidence, and thus will be most appropriate for this analysis.

Task 4. Cross Wnt-1 TG, Cox-2 (+/-) males x 18 Cox-2 (+/-) females to generate F2 Wnt-1 TG females with the following Cox-2 genotypes: (+/+), (+/-) and (-/-).

These crosses are in progress.

Task 5. Evaluate mammary hyperplasia in 5 animals each of the above F2 genotypes at 8 weeks of age.

Pending, awaiting generation of sufficient animals with the necessary

genotype (Task 4).

Task 6. Analyze mechanism of Cox-2 regulation by Wnt-1 in cell culture systems.

Cell lines stably expressing <u>Wnt-1</u> have been generated by retroviral infection with virus encoding <u>Wnt-1</u>, and assayed for Cox-2 by Northern and Western blotting. We have observed that <u>Wnt-1</u>-expressing cells have elevated Cox-2 protein and RNA, due to transcriptional upregulation of the <u>Cox-2</u> gene, and consequently produce elevated amounts of PGE_2 . These data have been published and full details can be found in the appended Cancer Research paper (Howe <u>et al</u>. (1999) Cancer Research **59**, 1572-1577).

Further experiments are currently in progress designed to elucidate the molecular mechanism by which Wnt-1 mediates upregulation of the $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ promoter.

Tasks 7 & 8.

Pending, awaiting generation of the necessary animals (Task 4).

Key Research Accomplishments

Breeding programs were established to generate numerous <u>Wnt-1</u> transgenic and <u>Cox-2</u> heterozygote mice for further breeding <u>Wnt-1</u> transgenic and <u>Cox-2</u> heterozygote mice were crossed to generate <u>F1 Wnt-1</u> transgenic, <u>Cox-2</u> heterozygote males for final cross Breeding pairs have been established to generate <u>F2 Wnt-1</u> transgenic mice of genotypes <u>Cox-2</u> (+/+), (+/-) and (-/-), to be analyzed for mammary hyperplasia and tumor incidence
We have demonstrated that <u>Wnt-1</u> expression in mammary epithelial cell lines causes transcriptional upregulation of the <u>Cox-2</u> gene

Reportable Outcomes

1 published paper (Howe et al.(1999) Cancer Research 59, 1572-1577); appended.

Conclusions

Much of the progress made to date on this project has involved establishing mice colonies and breeding programs, which constitute necessary preliminary steps to evaluating the effect of Cox-2 gene dosage on Wnt-1-induced mammary hyperplasia and carcinoma formation. However, we have also demonstrated in a cell culture system that Wnt-1 causes transcriptional upregulation of the Cox-2 gene. Consistent with this, we have observed increased Cox-2 protein in mammary glands from Wnt-1 transgenic mice relative to those of control wildtype littermates. These findings are of considerable interest, suggesting that, in addition to its well-established role in colorectal cancer, Cox-2 may also be upregulated during, and contribute to, mammary tumorigenesis. Should our experiments show a reduction in mammary tumorigenesis correlating with reduced Cox-2 gene dosage, a future goal will be to determine whether pharmacological inhibition of Cox-2 gene dosage, a future goal protects against mammary cancer.

We are currently using our <u>Wnt-1</u>-expressing cell lines to analyze the molecular mechanism of $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ upregulation by Wnt-1. $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ is upregulated in tumors generated as a consequence of aberrant <u>Wnt-1</u> expression or mutation of the <u>APC</u> tumor suppressor gene. Since both of these events result in stabilization of β -catenin in the cytosol, and consequently β -catenin/TCF-mediated transcriptional activation, it is tempting to speculate that the $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ gene may be subject to regulation by β -catenin/TCF complexes. However, it is equally possible that other molecular events may contribute to $\underline{\text{Cox-2}}$ upregulation. Experiments are currently underway to distinguish these possibilities.

Transcriptional Activation of *Cyclooxygenase-2* in Wnt-1-transformed Mouse Mammary Epithelial Cells¹

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ABSTRACT

Wnt-1 acts as a mammary oncogene when ectopically expressed in the mouse mammary gland. APC is a tumor suppressor gene, mutations in which cause intestinal tumorigenesis in humans and rodents. Both Wnt-1 expression and APC mutation activate a common signaling pathway involving transcriptional activation mediated by β-catenin/Tcf complexes, but few targets relevant to carcinogenesis have yet been identified. Expression of the inducible prostaglandin synthase cyclooxygenase-2 appears critical for intestinal tumorigenesis resulting from APC mutation, suggesting that cyclooxygenase-2 might be a transcriptional target for B-catenin/Tcf complexes. Here, we have investigated the effect of Wnt-1 on cyclooxygenase-2 expression. Wnt-1 expression in the mouse mammary epithelial cell lines RAC311 and C57MG induces stabilization of cytosolic β-catenin and morphological transformation. Expression of Wnt-1 in these cells caused transcriptional up-regulation of the cyclooxygenase-2 gene, resulting in increased levels of cyclooxygenase-2 mRNA and protein. Prostaglandin E₂ production was increased as a consequence of the elevated cyclooxygenase-2 activity and could be decreased by treatment with a selective cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitor. Cyclooxygenase-2 thus appears to be a common downstream target for APC mutation and Wnt-1 expression. In view of the critical role of cyclooxygenase-2 in intestinal tumorigenesis, cyclooxygenase-2 up-regulation in response to Wnt signaling may contribute to Wnt-induced mammary carcinogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Wnt-1 was originally identified as a mammary oncogene activated by proviral insertions of mouse mammary tumor virus (1–3). Ectopic expression of Wnt-1 under the control of a mouse mammary tumor virus promoter leads to extensive mammary hyperplasia and subsequent generation of adenocarcinomas in mice (4). Cell culture experiments demonstrate that multiple Wnt gene family members including Wnt-1 can cause partial cellular transformation of some epithelial and fibroblastic cell lines (5–12). Collectively, these data implicate Wnt-1 as an oncogene when inappropriately expressed. Several WNT gene family members have been found to be overexpressed in a proportion of human breast cancers and may therefore contribute to carcinogenesis in humans (13–17).

The Wnt-1 gene encodes a secreted protein that functions as an extracellular ligand capable of promoting mitogenesis (18–21). Wnt-1 appears to signal via a unique pathway, thought to be initiated by interaction of Wnt-1 with a member of the Frizzled family of seventransmembrane receptors, leading to stabilization of a cytosolic pool of β -catenin (22). Accumulated β -catenin can translocate to the nucleus, interact with Tcf transcription factors, and thereby mediate transcriptional activation (11, 23–31).

Received 10/22/98; accepted 1/27/99.

B-Catenin/Tcf-mediated transcriptional activation has recently been implicated in human carcinogenesis. Elevated cytosolic β -catenin and transcriptionally active β -catenin/Tcf complexes have been detected in both colon carcinomas and melanomas (32-34). β-Catenin accumulation can occur as a consequence of mutation of either the β catenin gene itself or the tumor suppressor gene APC, because wildtype APC protein contributes to β -catenin destabilization (32–36). Mutations in APC cause intestinal tumorigenesis in humans and mice. Although the molecular mechanism by which APC mutation induces tumorigenesis is unclear, many data implicate cyclooxygenase enzymes in this process (37). Cox-1³ and Cox-2 are constitutively expressed and inducible isoforms of prostaglandin synthase, respectively (gene symbols, Ptgs1 and Ptgs2; Ref. 38). COX-2 expression has been detected in intestinal tumors of both mice and humans with APC mutations (39-41). Genetic ablation of the Cox-2 gene or pharmacological inhibition of Cox-2 activity dramatically reduces the incidence of intestinal tumors in Apc mutant mice (42).

Thus, both APC mutation and ectopic Wnt-1 expression can cause tumorigenesis, and this may be, at least in part, via a common signaling pathway involving β -catenin/Tcf complexes. Furthermore, Cox-2 appears critical for tumor formation resulting from APC mutation. Consequently, we reasoned that Cox-2 might also be a target for Wnt-1 signaling and might potentially contribute to Wnt-1-induced mammary tumorigenesis. We therefore tested the effect of Wnt-1 expression on Cox-2 in mouse mammary epithelial cells. Here we show that Wnt-1 expression in RAC311 and C57MG cells causes increased transcription of Cox-2, resulting in elevated Cox-2 protein levels. An increase in PGE2 synthesis is also observed in Wnt-1expressing cells, which can be reversed by treatment with a selective Cox-2 inhibitor. These data may be significant not only in terms of Wnt-mediated carcinogenesis in the mouse but also in relation to human cancers in which components of the Wnt signaling pathway are activated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Culture. Two mouse mammary epithelial cell lines were used, C57MG (43) and RAC311, a clonal subline derived from RAC311c (44, 45). RAC311 cells were grown in DMEM (4.5 g/l D-glucose) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (Life Technologies, Inc.), 100 units/ml penicillin, and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin. C57MG growth medium was supplemented with 10 μ g/ml insulin (Sigma). Cells were infected with MV7 or MVWnt-1 retrovirus using helper-free virus stocks as described previously (21). Approximately 50–100 G418-resistant colonies were pooled to generate the pooled populations designated RAC/MV7, RAC/Wnt-1, C57/MV7, and C57/Wnt-1. A clonal subline of RAC/Wnt-1 was derived by limiting dilution, selected on the basis of highly transformed morphology, and designated RAC/Wnt-1 #9. For cell lysate and RNA preparation, cells were plated at 1 × 10⁶ cells per 10-cm dish and grown until MV7-infected control cells were confluent (5 days for RAC/MV7; 4 days for C57/MV7). DFU was a generous gift of the Merck Frosst Center for Therapeutic Research (Quebec, Canada).

Cell Lysate Preparation and Analysis. For Wnt-1 protein analysis, ECM fractions were prepared after removing the cells from the dishes by incubation

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¹ This study was funded by NIH Grants CA47207 (to A. M. C. B.) and CA68136 (to A. J. D.), by Department of the Army Grant BC972610, and by donations to the Strang Cancer Prevention Center from the Fashion Footwear Association of New York. L. R. H. is a Lilith fellow, funded in part by proceeds from the Lilith Fair.

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³ The abbreviations used are: Cox, cyclooxygenase; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; DFU, 5,5-dimethyl-3-(3-fluorophenyl)-4-(4-methylsulfonyl)phenyl-2(5*H*)-furanone; ECM, extracellular matrix; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase.

with Dulbecco's PBS (Life Technologies, Inc.) containing 2 mm EDTA. ECM remaining on the plates was solubilized in boiling Laemmli SDS sample buffer and stored at -20° C. For analysis of cytosolic β -catenin levels, lysates were prepared as described (46), and total protein was assayed using Bio-Rad Protein Assay reagent. For Cox-2 protein analysis, lysates were prepared essentially as described (47). Cells were washed twice with PBS and harvested in lysis buffer containing 150 mm NaCl, 100 mm Tris-Cl (pH 8.0), 1% Tween 20, 1 mm EDTA, 1 mm phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 50 mm diethyldithiocarbamic acid. After one cycle of freeze-thawing at -20° C, cells were sonicated (three times for 15 s each time) on ice, then debris was pelleted by centrifugation at $10,000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4° C. Supernatants were stored at -80° C, and proteins were assayed using a Lowry-based protein assay kit (Sigma).

For Western analysis, samples were subjected to SDS-PAGE as follows: Wnt-1 ECM fractions, 10% gel; β -catenin samples, 8% gel, 5 μ g of protein; Cox-2 lysates, 10% gel, 50 μ g of protein. Proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (Immobilon; Millipore), blotted with anti-Wnt-1 antibody (MC123; Ref. 21), anti- β -catenin antibody (Transduction Laboratories; Ref. 46), or anti-Cox-2 antibody (715; Ref. 47), and developed with Amersham enhanced chemiluminescence reagents. The anti-Cox-2 antibody 715 was a rabbit polyclonal antibody, raised against the unique 18-amino acid sequence from the COOH-terminal region of human Cox-2, which does not react with Cox-1.

RNA Preparation and Northern Blotting. RNA was prepared from confluent cells using RNAzol B (Tel-Test, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Twenty μg of RNA were subjected to electrophoresis in 1% agarose/formaldehyde/3-[N-morpholino]propanesulfonic acid gels and transferred to Zeta-Probe membrane (Bio-Rad). Radiolabeled random-primed probes were prepared using the Rediprime DNA labeling system (Amersham), and hybridization was undertaken at 65°C in 0.5 M Na₂HPO₄ (pH 7.2), 7% SDS, and 1 mM EDTA (48). Washes were performed in 40 mM Na₂HPO₄ (pH 7.2), 1% SDS at 65°C. Probes used were murine Cox-2 (TIS-10; a gift from H. R. Herschman, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA), murine Cox-1 (a gift from W. L. Smith, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI), and murine GAPDH (obtained from A. Ashworth, Institute of Cancer Research, London, England). GAPDH was used to demonstrate equal loading of each lane.

Nuclear Run-Ons. Nuclei were prepared, and nuclear run-ons were performed as described (47).

Autoradiographic exposures of both Northern blots and nuclear run-ons were quantitated by analysis on a Macintosh computer using the public domain NIH Image program (developed at the United States NIH and available on the Internet at http://rsb.info.nih.gov/nih-image/). Values obtained were normalized to those obtained for GAPDH and 18S rRNA for Northern blots and nuclear run-ons, respectively.

PGE₂ Assays. Cells were plated in 12-well plates at 4×10^4 cells/well and grown to confluence. Culture medium was collected and assayed for PGE₂ by enzyme immunoassay (Cayman Co., Ann Arbor, MI). To assay PGE₂ production in the presence of excess arachidonic acid (AA "spiked"), cells were incubated with fresh medium containing 10 μm arachidonic acid for 30 min, and then this medium was harvested and assayed as above. For experiments assaying the effect of DFU on PGE₂ production, cells were plated in 6-cm dishes at 3×10^5 cells/dish. DFU was added in fresh medium 72 h after plating and readded at 96 h. PGE₂ production was assayed at 120 h after plating, at which time control cells were confluent.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To examine the effect of Wnt-1 on *Cox-2* expression, we generated fresh cell populations expressing *Wnt-1* by infection of the mouse mammary epithelial cell lines C57MG and RAC311 with retrovirus encoding Wnt-1 (MVWnt-1) or control retrovirus (MV7). As observed previously (5, 6), both C57/Wnt-1 and RAC/Wnt-1 cells appeared morphologically transformed and grew to higher cell densities than control cells (C57/MV7 and RAC/MV7, respectively). An additional clonal subline, RAC/Wnt-1 #9, was generated from RAC/Wnt-1 by limiting dilution and selected because of its high degree of morphological transformation. Western blot analysis using an anti-

Wnt-1 antibody revealed that RAC/Wnt-1 #9 produced more Wnt-1 protein than the pooled RAC/Wnt-1 population (Fig. 1A). Therefore, we included both RAC/Wnt-1 and RAC/Wnt-1 #9 in subsequent analyses. As demonstrated previously, expression of Wnt-1 in C57MG led to accumulation of uncomplexed cytosolic β -catenin (Refs. 46 and 49; data not shown). In addition, cytosolic β -catenin was elevated in RAC311 cells expressing Wnt-1 (Fig. 1B), and higher levels were detected in RAC/Wnt-1 #9 relative to RAC/Wnt-1, correlating with relative Wnt-1 protein production.

Cox-2 protein levels in control and *Wnt-1*-expressing cell lines were analyzed by Western blotting (Fig. 2). C57/MV7 exhibited a markedly higher basal amount of Cox-2 than RAC/MV7, in which Cox-2 protein was virtually undetectable. In both C57MG and RAC311 cell lines, however, expression of *Wnt-1* led to an increase in Cox-2 protein, and Cox-2 protein was more abundant in RAC/Wnt-1 #9 than in RAC/Wnt-1, correlating with *Wnt-1* expression levels. Analysis of Cox-2 RNA by Northern blotting demonstrated that

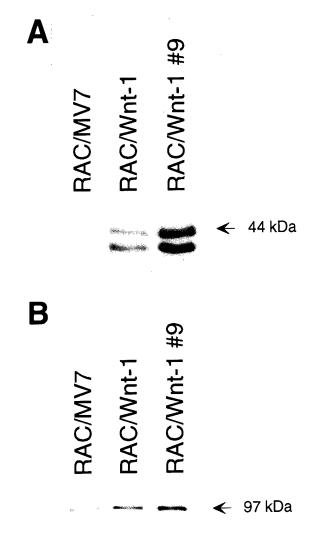


Fig. 1. Characterization of RAC311 cells expressing Wnt-1. RAC/MV7, RAC/Wnt-1, and RAC/Wnt-1 #9 cells were generated by retroviral infection as described in "Materials and Methods." Cells were analyzed by Western blotting for Wnt-1 protein and cytosolic β -catenin levels. A, Wnt-1 expression. ECM fractions were prepared and assayed for Wnt-1 protein as described in "Materials and Methods." Anti-Wnt-1 antibody MC123 detected two bands of M_r , 42,000 and M_r , 44,000 in Wnt-1-expressing cells, as observed previously (71). These represent differentially glycosylated forms of Wnt-1 protein (20). No Wnt-1 protein was detected in ECM from control RAC/MV7 cells. B_r , cytosolic β -catenin. Cytosol fractions were prepared from cells and assayed for β -catenin as described in "Materials and Methods." The position of a M_r 97,000 molecular weight marker is shown.

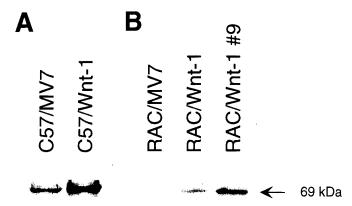


Fig. 2. Cox-2 protein is increased by Wnt-I expression. Lysates were prepared from C57MG-derived cells (A) and RAC311-derived cells (B). Fifty μg of lysate were analyzed by Western blotting for Cox-2 as described in "Materials and Methods," using rabbit polyclonal anti-Cox-2 antibody 715. Data shown in A and B are from separate experiments. The position of a M_t 69,000 molecular weight marker is shown.



Fig. 3. Cox-2 mRNA is increased in cells expressing Wnt-1. Total RNA was prepared from cells, and 20 µg of each RNA sample were analyzed by Northern blotting as described in "Materials and Methods." The blot was probed sequentially with a murine Cox-2 probe and a murine GAPDH probe. Cox-2 signals were quantitated using the program NIH Image and normalized to those obtained from GAPDH probing. Values obtained are expressed relative to the control MV7-infected cell line in each case. C57/MV7, 100%; C57/Wnt-1, 500%; RAC/MV7, 100%; RAC/Wnt-1, 174%; RAC/Wnt-1 #9, 327%.

Cox-2 mRNA levels closely reflected the changes observed in Cox-2 protein (Fig. 3), suggesting the effect of Wnt-1 on Cox-2 was likely to be due to transcriptional activation of the *Cox-2* gene. To test this directly, nuclear run-on assays were performed. These and subsequent assays were performed in the RAC311-derived cell lines in preference to C57MG-derived lines, because the latter tend to lose *Wnt-1* expression during continuous culture.⁴ The rates of transcription from the *Cox-2* gene in RAC/Wnt-1 and RAC/Wnt-1 #9 were increased to 270 and 400%, respectively, relative to that in RAC/MV7 (Fig. 4), mirroring the differences observed in Cox-2 RNA and protein. Thus, expression of *Wnt-1* in RAC311, and most likely C57MG, causes transcriptional activation of the *Cox-2* gene.

Cox-2 is an inducible isoform of prostaglandin synthase (38). Thus, one predicted functional consequence of *Cox-2* up-regulation would be an increase in prostaglandin synthesis, of which PGE₂ is the predominant eicosanoid produced by most epithelial cells. We therefore assayed PGE₂ production in RAC311-derived cell lines. Spontaneous production of PGE₂ in RAC/Wnt-1 and RAC-Wnt/1 #9 was increased by 240 and 420%, respectively, over that in RAC/MV7 (Fig.

5, "spontaneous"). Spontaneous PGE_2 production was also measured in C57MG-derived lines and was increased $\sim 100\%$ in C57/Wnt-1 cells relative to C57/MV7 (data not shown). Given that arachidonic acid is the substrate from which cyclooxygenases synthesize prostaglandins, incubation of cells with excess arachidonic acid can increase PGE_2 production. In our experiments, treatment of the cells with arachidonic acid increased the absolute amounts of PGE_2 synthesis (Fig. 5, "AA spiked"), but PGE_2 production was still elevated in Wnt-1-expressing cells relative to RAC/MV7. This suggests that the measured spontaneous synthesis rates reflected relative levels of Cox-2 activity in the cells, rather than differential availability of arachidonic acid.

The observed increases in PGE₂ synthesis in Wnt-1-expressing cells could also be a consequence of changes in the level of Cox-1. Although Cox-1 is constitutively and ubiquitously expressed, there have been reports of ligand-induced Cox-1 up-regulation (50-53). Therefore, we addressed the involvement of Cox-1 using two assays: (a) we measured Cox-1 mRNA by Northern blotting and found little or no increase in Cox-1 mRNA in RAC/Wnt-1 and C57MG/Wnt-1, respectively, relative to control cells (Fig. 6); and (b) we tested the relative contribution of Cox-1 and Cox-2 to PGE₂ production in the RAC311-derived cell lines by using DFU, a selective Cox-2 inhibitor. DFU has at least a 1000-fold specificity for Cox-2 relative to Cox-1 in tissue culture cells (54). RAC/MV7, RAC/Wnt-1. and RAC/Wnt-1 #9 were treated with varying concentrations of DFU for 48 h, and culture supernatants were then assayed for PGE2. A dose-dependent inhibition of PGE $_2$ production was observed, with 1 μ M DFU being sufficient to reduce PGE₂ production to approximately the same basal level in all three cell lines (Fig. 7). Higher concentrations of DFU did not cause any additional inhibition of PGE2 synthesis. The residual PGE, production observed in all cell lines after inhibition of Cox-2 with DFU is presumed to reflect Cox-1 activity. Because the amount of Cox-1-mediated PGE2 synthesis is apparently constant in all three cell lines, we conclude that the enhanced production of PGE2 in Wnt-1-transformed cells is attributable to increased Cox-2 activity, consistent with the observed differences in Cox-2 RNA and protein levels. Cell morphology was unaffected by treatment with DFU (data not shown). The failure of DFU to affect morphological transformation of Wnt-1-expressing cells suggests that elevated prostanoid pro-

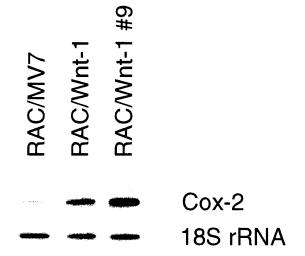


Fig. 4. Cox-2 transcription is up-regulated in RAC311 cells expressing Wnt-1. Nuclei were prepared, and nuclear run-on assays were performed as described in "Materials and Methods." Labeled nascent transcripts were hybridized to 18S rRNA and Cox-2 cDNAs, which were immobilized on nitrocellulose. Signals were quantitated using the program NIH Image, and Cox-2 was normalized to 18S rRNA. Values obtained are expressed relative to RAC/MV7. RAC/Mv7, 100%; RAC/Wnt-1, 267%; RAC/Wnt-1 #9, 399%.

⁴ A. M. C. Brown, unpublished observations.

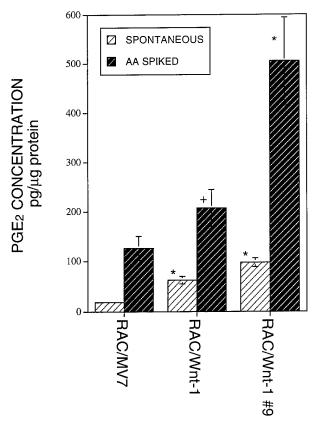


Fig. 5. PGE₂ production is increased by expression of *Wnt-1*. Cells were grown for 5 days after plating to achieve confluence, during which time no medium change was performed. Growth medium from the cells was harvested and assayed using enzyme immunoassay to measure spontaneous PGE₂ production (*SPONTANEOUS*, light hatching). Cells were incubated for an additional 30 min in fresh medium containing 10 μ m sodium arachidonate. The medium was then collected and assayed for PGE₂ (*AA SPIKED*, dark hatching). Results were normalized to μ g of protein obtained from the cells after harvesting of medium. Results shown are mean values of six replicates; *bars*, SD. PGE₂ production from both *Wnt-1*-expressing cell lines was significantly greater than that from RAC/MV7 control cells (*, P < 0.001; +, P < 0.003).

duction by Cox-2 is not necessary for maintenance of the transformed phenotype of these cells *in vitro*.

We have shown here that expression of Wnt-1 in two mammary epithelial cell lines causes elevated expression and activity of Cox-2, via transcriptional activation, resulting in increased PGE2 synthesis. The Cox-2 gene was initially identified as an early response gene up-regulated in response to phorbol ester and serum and was subsequently found to be induced by multiple agents, particularly during inflammatory responses (38). A large body of evidence has accumulated implicating Cox-2 in intestinal carcinogenesis. COX-2 expression is frequently detected in tumor tissue (39, 40, 55-58), and the incidence of intestinal tumorigenesis in both mice and humans can be reduced by pharmacological agents that inhibit Cox activity (41, 42, 59-64). A crucial role for Cox-2 in tumorigenesis has been demonstrated by Oshima et al. (1996; Ref. 42), who found that intestinal polyposis in Apc mutant mice was markedly reduced by genetic ablation of Cox-2. However, Cox-2 induction in response to Wnt proteins has not been demonstrated previously.

The mechanism by which Wnt-1 activates Cox-2 transcription is unclear. Given that COX-2 induction occurs in response to Wnt-1 expression and APC mutation, both of which result in cytosolic β -catenin accumulation, our initial expectation was that the Cox-2 promoter might be subject to direct regulation by β -catenin/Tcf complexes. The human COX-2 promoter contains two potential Tcf-binding sites, although their overlap with the canonical TCF binding

motif is only partial (ACTTTGATC and TCTTTGTAG compared with CCTTTGA/TA/TC; Ref. 27). One of these sites is not conserved in the murine Cox-2 promoter, and the other lies outside the sequence presently reported for the mouse promoter. To investigate the mechanism of regulation, we have performed transient transfection assays using a human COX-2 promoter-luciferase reporter construct but thus far have been unable to detect increased reporter activity as a result of β -catenin overexpression. Thus, it is possible that Cox-2 transcription may not be directly regulated by β -catenin/Tcf complexes but may be activated in Wnt-I-expressing cells by alternative transcription factors. We also cannot exclude the possibility that Cox-2 induction is a more downstream or indirect consequence of Wnt signaling.

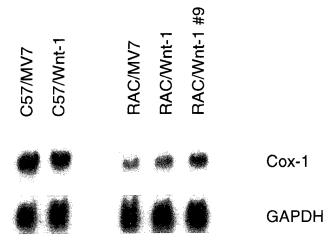


Fig. 6. Effect of *Wnt-1* expression on Cox-1 mRNA. RNA was prepared, and a Northern blot was generated as described in "Materials and Methods" using 20 μ g of each RNA. The blot was probed sequentially with a murine Cox-1 probe and a murine GAPDH probe. Cox-1 signals were quantitated using the program NIH Image and normalized to those obtained from GAPDH probing. Values obtained are expressed relative to the control MV7-infected cell line in each case. C57/MV7, 100%; C57/Wnt-1, 70%; RAC/MV7, 100%; RAC/Wnt-1, 118%; RAC/Wnt-1 #9, 163%.

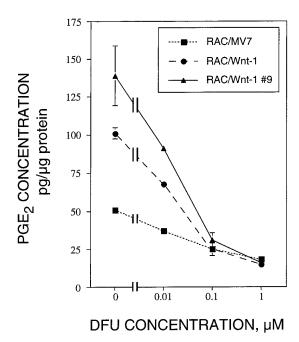


Fig. 7. Inhibition of PGE₂ production by a selective Cox-2 inhibitor DFU. Cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of DFU for 48 h. Culture medium was harvested and assayed for PGE₂ by enzyme immunoassay to determine spontaneous release of PGE₂. Results were normalized to μg of protein obtained from the cells after harvesting of the medium. Mean values of two replicates are shown; bars, spread.

Because Wnt-1 is a mammary oncogene, our data suggest that Cox-2 up-regulation might also contribute to mammary tumorigenesis. Consistent with this idea, Cox-2 is expressed in ras- and virally transformed mammary cells, as well as in some human breast cancers and breast cancer cell lines (47, 65, 66). Interestingly, despite abundant evidence of the importance of Cox-2 during intestinal tumorigenesis, the precise mechanism by which Cox-2 contributes is unclear. Prostaglandin overproduction is likely to have multiple consequences. Prostaglandins can exert local immunosuppressive effects that could facilitate tumorigenesis (37, 67). Additionally changes in gene expression can occur because selected prostaglandins are ligands of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (68). Cox-2 induction in tumors may promote survival of cells otherwise destined to undergo apoptotic cell death; negative regulation of apoptosis by Cox-2 overexpression has been demonstrated in intestinal epithelial cells (69). Recent data also demonstrate a role for Cox-2 in angiogenesis. Selective inhibition of Cox-2 reduces secretion of angiogenic factors from colon cancer cells, thereby suppressing de novo formation of endothelial tubules in vitro (70). Because of the pleiotropic consequences of Cox-2 overexpression, it is difficult to predict what role Cox-2 might play in Wnt-1-induced mammary tumorigenesis. Transgenic mice that express Wnt-1 ectopically in the mammary gland display extensive mammary hyperplasia at an early age and subsequently develop mammary adenocarcinomas stochastically after a latent period of several months (4). If Cox-2 contributes to Wnt-1mediated tumorigenesis in vivo, it could do so either at the initial hyperplastic stage or by affecting progression to carcinoma. Our findings may also be pertinent to human breast cancer. Although expression of WNT-1 itself in human mammary tissue has not been reported, several others members of the WNT gene family are overexpressed in human breast tumors relative to normal tissue (13–16). A number of Wnt proteins exhibit functional redundancy with Wnt-1, inducing stabilization of cytosolic β -catenin and morphological transformation of mammary cells (8, 10). Therefore, it is likely that some of the WNT genes overexpressed in human breast cancers may have transcriptional consequences similar to those of Wnt-1.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank A. Ashworth, H. R. Herschman, and W. L. Smith for plasmids. The generous assistance of J. R. Timmer with production of figures is gratefully acknowledged.

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